

ENRICHED FLOUR



CONSUMERS' GUIDE

FEBRUARY 15, 1941



WHEAT



COTTON GOODS



CITRUS



MILK GLOSSARY

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

FEBRUARY 15, 1941 VOLUME VII, No. 10

A Publication of the
Department of Agriculture
Washington, D. C.

Issued monthly from June through
September; Semi-monthly from
October through May

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The Consumers' Guide is printed with the approval of the Bureau of the Budget as required by Rule 42 of the Joint Committee on Printing. Official free distribution, 150,000 copies per issue. Additional copies may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 5 cents a copy, or by subscription 50 cents a year, domestic; 80 cents a year, foreign. Postage stamps will not be accepted in payment.

"PENNY MILK" is trickling every school day down the red lanes of 232,000 children in New York, 52,000 in Chicago, and if plans go through this spring it will be a nourishing refreshment offered to school children in 3 new cities: Omaha, Nebr.; Ogden, Utah; and Birmingham, Ala.

Started as an experiment in Chicago in the spring of 1940 (see CONSUMERS' GUIDE, November 1, 1940, page 2), this milk bottle route to building stronger young Americans led to New York City in the fall of 1940. Now 232,000 boys and girls in 332 schools in the poorer sections of that city are getting a half-pint of milk each school day, against the 37,000 who used to get their half-pints before "penny milk" came along. Chicago schools also resumed their service of "penny milk" this winter, and now 52,000 children each get a daily half-pint of milk, against a total of 9,000 who used to get it.

"Penny milk" is possible because farmers, dairies, school authorities, and the Federal Government are all working together to make it possible. Farmers accept a slightly lower price for the milk that goes into "penny milk" bottles; dairies are expected to handle the business at cost; the Federal Government makes up the difference between the penny paid by the child and the total cost of the milk; school authorities work out ways to get it to as many children as possible.

When "penny milk" gets started in Ogden and Birmingham, a new wrinkle is going to be tried out. There, the schools will sell milk tickets. These tickets will sell under a kind of 2-price system. Boys and girls who can afford to pay full price for their milk will be asked to buy the full-price tickets. Those who can't afford this will have a chance to get their tickets for less. This scheme is to be worked out so that handicapped children won't feel the rub.

It takes time to work out the details of a successful "penny milk" program. The new ones now getting shaped up under direction of the Surplus Marketing Administration of the Department of Agriculture will be tried out this spring so that by the time school bells ring next fall everything will be set for full-fledged operation.

Consumers in other cities who would like something like this operating in their schools might drop a line to the Surplus Marketing Administration. It might be possible—nobody can promise—to get some more boys and girls lining up for "penny milk."

SYBARIS, an ancient Greek settlement in Sicily, whose pleasure-loving inhabitants gave the present-day meaning to the word sybarite, was where the first cookbook is supposed to have been published.

Since then cooks have developed a language of their own which enables them to carry on conversations or to write new cookbooks completely beyond the understanding of many people.

To solve the riddle of the kitchen, however, a cookery lexicographer in the Department of Agriculture has compiled a simple glossary of everyday words and phrases encountered around a cook stove.

SIMMER: To cook in water that is about 185 degrees Fahrenheit, that is in water that never quite comes to a boil. Simmering is a gentle cooking process that gives you tender pieces of meat in a rich gravy.

PANBROIL: To cook in a skillet on top of the stove without added fat, without water, without a cover. In panbroiling you must be sure to pour off the fat that renders out of the meat. Panbroiling is used to cook quickly tender steaks and chops that have their own fat.

FRY: To cook in fat. There is deep fat frying, a method by which the food being cooked is covered with fat, or there is pan frying where just enough fat to prevent the food from sticking is used. Foods also may

be fried in their own fat, say bacon or sausages.

SAUTE: To brown food in a little hot fat, turning it over frequently to prevent it from sticking. Less fat is used than in frying but more than in panbroiling.

BRAISE: To brown in a little hot fat and then to cook in steam with or without added liquid. Swiss steak and pot roast are examples of braising. Inexpensive cuts of meat when properly braised become tender enough to cut with a fork. Vegetables, like celery and carrots, may also be braised.

SCALLOP: To combine with a sauce (tomato, cheese, or a plain white sauce) and then to bake in the oven until golden brown on top. Almost any vegetable or sea food or combination of either may be scalloped delectably.

BATTER: A mixture of flour and liquid that's thin enough to beat.

CREAM: In a baking recipe, to blend fat and sugar with a spoon until the mixture is soft and creamy. In a recipe for vegetables, to combine them with a sauce made of fat, flour, milk, or cream, and seasoning.

CUTTING IN: To mix fat into flour by cutting the fat into little pieces, either with a knife, fork, biscuit cutter, or pastry blender.

BEAT: To agitate with a regular rhythmic motion that lifts the mixture over and over in such a way that air is forced into the mixture. Beating may be done with a spoon, a wire whip, a Dover beater, or a mechanical beater.

FOLD: To combine beaten egg whites with the thicker part of the mixture for a cake, a soufflé, or a puffy omelet. In order to make the fold, the spoon or egg whip is put straight down to the bottom of the bowl and then turned under the mass and brought straight up. In this manner layers of the thicker mixture and the egg whites are mixed together.

Credit for photographs goes to: U. S. Department of Agriculture, Information Division (cover, top); Farm Security Administration (cover, lower 1, 2, 4, page 9, lower right); California Fruit Growers Exchange (cover, lower 3, page 11); Florida Citrus Commission (pages 1, 3, and 13).



Facts About "Enriched" Flour and Bread

Millers and bakers are soon going to offer consumers new kinds of white or near-white flours and breads, labeled as "enriched." Here are some questions about these products with answers that come from food experts in Government

WHEAT FOODS are valuable foods. They supply food energy and protein at low cost. To be strong, people need an abundance of food energy and protein, and also of vitamins and minerals. Whole wheat grains have in them a generous supply of some of the vitamins and minerals bodies need. When wheat grains are milled to produce white flour, a large part of the vitamins and minerals in whole wheat grains is lost.

Standards for "enriched" flour and bread which many millers and bakers are following were recommended by the Committee on Foods and Nutrition of the National Research Council, a group of nutritionists. Government standards for "enriched" flour are being proposed, but no Government standards had been set for "enriched" bread by the date of this issue of CONSUMERS' GUIDE.

The recommended enrichment of flour and bread, which should cost consumers little or nothing, is designed especially to help in planning adequate low-cost meals, and in the interest of the health of the Nation.

1. What is "enriched" flour?

According to the Committee's recommendation, enriched flour is white or near-white flour which has in it specified amounts of at least two vitamins, thiamin (B₁) and nicotinic acid, and one mineral, iron. "Enriched" flour may also contain certain amounts of two other vitamins, riboflavin* and Vitamin D, and two minerals, calcium and phosphorus, but these are not required.

*Government standards may make riboflavin a required ingredient. Other valuable sources of riboflavin are: milk, cheese, eggs, lean meats, liver, nuts, kale, spinach, and other greens.

2. How is "enriched" flour made?

(1) By special methods of milling wheat, which save the recommended amounts of the vitamin and minerals;

(2) By adding to plain white flour the recommended amounts of vitamins and minerals;

(3) By combining these methods, saving part and adding the rest.

3. Which type of "enriched" flour is preferred?

The kind that is made by special milling is to be preferred, but may not be on the market as soon.

4. What does "enriched" flour look like?

The kind made by adding vitamins and

minerals looks and tastes like the white flour you have been used to. The kind made by special milling is slightly darker.

5. If you use "enriched" flour in recipes that call for plain white flour, do you have to change your recipes in any way?

Use "enriched" flour, to which vitamins and minerals have been added, in exactly the same way. The specially milled flour may require slight changes in recipes.

6. Can you use baking powder, or soda and sour milk, with "enriched" flour?

Yes, but use no more soda than is necessary. An excess tends to destroy the vitamins.



THERE IS NO ONE PERFECT FOOD

EVERY food has something to add to health and strength. There is no one perfect plan for meals. Many different combinations of foods will give bodies the nourishment they must have to work hard, carry strain, and grow in power and joy. Choose the best possible meals your pocketbook can afford. Rules for well-balanced meals are simple. If you are not sure what they are, check with the November 15, 1940 and February 15, 1941 issues of CONSUMERS' GUIDE.

- 4 7. Can you use self-rising "enriched" flour in making biscuits and other hot breads?

Yes. Self-rising "enriched" flour behaves exactly as the self-rising flour you have been using.

8. What is "enriched" bread?

It is bread which has in it the vitamins and minerals present in "enriched" flour.

9. How is "enriched" bread made?

- (1) With "enriched" flour;
- (2) With plain white flour and special yeast preparations;
- (3) A combination of these methods.

10. Should "enriched" bread be used in place of whole wheat?

No. If you prefer white bread be sure it is enriched.

11. Has "enriched" bread more food energy than plain white bread?

No. The vitamin and mineral additions do not change the energy value of bread.

12. Will eating only "enriched" bread supply you with the necessary amount of the vitamins and minerals present in this kind of bread?

Not unless you eat an excessive amount. Then you would not be able to eat enough other foods, supplying other vitamins and minerals your body needs.

13. Should you eat more bread if you buy the "enriched" kind?

Not necessarily. The important thing is to eat well-balanced meals.

14. Are "enriched" flour and "enriched" bread foods or medicines?

They are foods, not medicines. No curative claims should be made for these products.

15. What other foods are valuable sources of thiamin?

Whole wheat flour, oatmeal, and other whole grain cereals; beans and peas; nuts, lean pork products.

16. What other foods are valuable sources of nicotinic acid?

Lean beef, corned beef, chicken, liver, rabbit. Lesser amounts in milk, collards, kale, green peas, tomato juice, turnip greens.

17. Is nicotinic acid the same as nicotine?

No. Nicotinic acid is a vitamin found naturally in wheat and other foods. It has none of the qualities of nicotine found in tobacco.

18. What other foods are valuable sources of iron?

Whole wheat flour, rye flour, brown rice, oatmeal, eggs, lean meat, liver, kale, spinach and other greens, beans and peas, dried fruits, molasses.

19. Are the synthetic (or laboratory-made) vitamins that are added to enrich bread and flour as good as the same vitamins found in nature?

They do exactly the same job in the diet, although they may come from a different source.

20. Is there danger of getting too much of these vitamins by using enriched flour?

No. There is no reason to be concerned about this.

VITAMIN TABLE



THESE are the minimum amounts of vitamins and minerals which the Committee on Foods and Nutrition, National Research Council, recommends should be in each pound of "enriched" flour and bread:

	FLOUR	BREAD
	(Required)	
Thiamin	1.66 mg.*	1.0 mg.*
Nicotinic acid	6.15 "	4.0 "
Iron	6.15 "	4.0 "
	(Optional)	
Riboflavin	1.23 "	0.8 "
Calcium	500.00 "	300.0 "
Phosphorus	500.00 "
Vitamin D	250.00 I. U.**	150.00 I. U.**

*mg.=milligram.

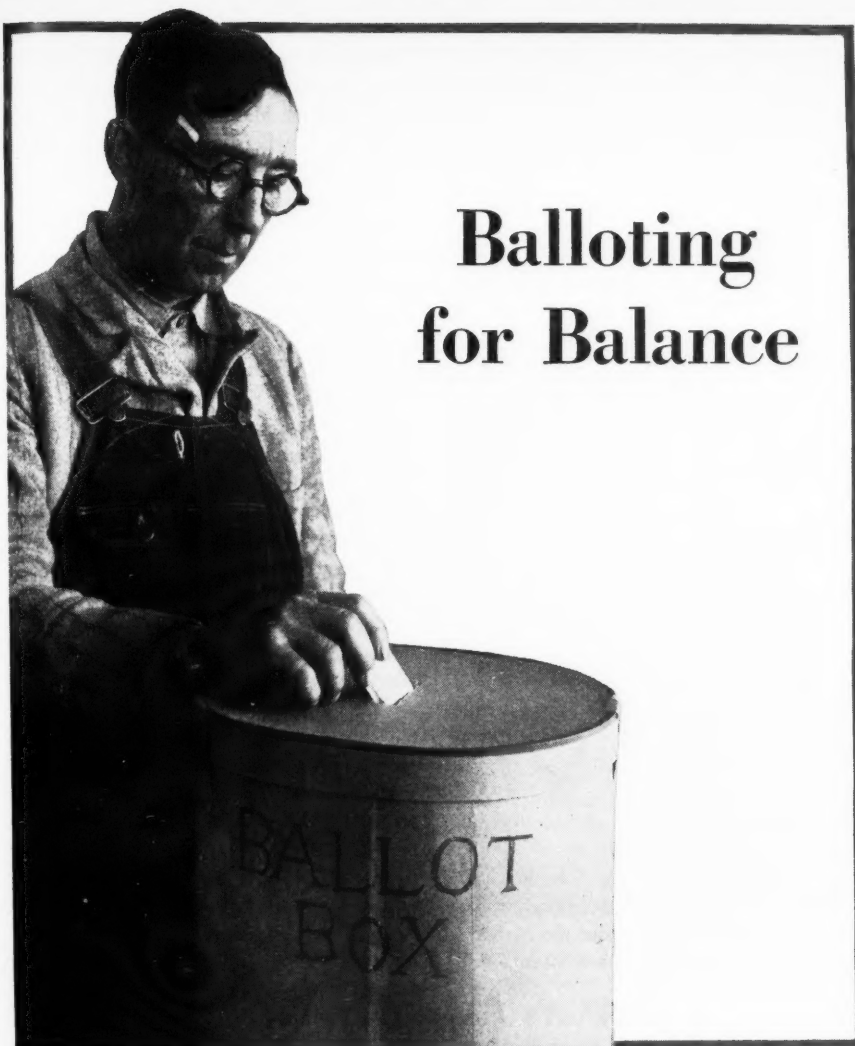
**I. U.=International Units.

THE DIET of an average man should provide these amounts of these vitamins and minerals each day, according to estimates by this Committee:

Thiamin	2 mg.
Nicotinic acid	20 "
Iron	12 "
Riboflavin	3 "
Calcium	800 "
Phosphorus	
Vitamin D	



Enough wheat will be on hand this summer for 2 years' normal needs



Balloting for Balance

tually the average consumption of flour per person adds up to about 155 pounds in a year. But just assume everyone in the country is going to take on a cargo of 168 pounds of flour a year. Even under that circumstance, the 1,200 million bushels of wheat that will be available on July 1, will be enough for more than 2 years without turning another furrow, seeding another foot of ground, or rolling a tractor out of its shed.

Surpluses of American foods, measured by human needs, are rare. When you name cereals and cooking fats, you have pretty nearly exhausted the list.

In fact, if a yardstick of the foods which consumers could use were held up against supplies, it would overtop many of our stores of vitamin- and mineral-rich foods. The 1939 Yearbook of Agriculture says, for example, if families not now getting good diets were to get the kind of freely chosen diets nutritionists rate as good, we'd need 20 percent more milk, 15 percent more butter, 35 percent more eggs, 70 percent more tomatoes and citrus fruit, 100 percent more leafy, green, and yellow vegetables. We could eat more meat, too, than we have this year without any harm to the pleasure and value of our meals.

NOT ONLY IS THERE A SURPLUS OF AMERICAN wheat, but world wheat production has risen far more rapidly than population has increased in the last 50 years. In 1889, for example, the world production of wheat (excluding Russia and China, for which there are not comparable statistics) was 2,400 million bushels. By 1939, world production was notching the 4,300 million bushel mark. Over these years some wheat-importing nations have become wheat-exporting nations. Nations which have continued to import wheat now import less of it. As competition for foreign wheat markets became keener, the competition also got rougher. Economic spite fences, tariffs, money regulations, import quotas, trade barriers of all kinds came to choke up the channels of international wheat trade. All this made for trouble even before the war-making had reached its present crescendo.

War is now here on a scale to make every other trade barrier and every other disaster look like a traffic jam in an ant hill.

MAY 31ST this year is going to be wheat referendum day. There's a surplus of wheat, and the point of the referendum is to decide whether growers want to have marketing quotas.

Mister Surplus is pictured usually as a pile of grain, perhaps as high as a barn, dwarfing the farmer who stands looking at the pile sadly.

Farmers and consumers, these days, however, are cagey when it comes to looking at Mr. Surplus's pictures. Is that pile of wheat heaped up there, they ask, because the wheat can't be sold, or because the wheat can't be used?

The distinction is an important one. People are impatient these days with surplus supplies on farms and minus supplies in cities.

There is an unmistakable surplus of wheat. In the year following July 1, 1941, there will be 1,200 million bushels of wheat in the country, according to present pros-

pects. That's enough for more than 55 billion pounds of flour, or about $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the amount of flour milled in the United States during recent years. Put in 12-pound bags and laid side by side it's enough flour to girdle the earth 27 times.

Of course, wheat isn't sown and harvested and milled and put into bags for the purpose of girdling the earth with it. Grain is produced so that people can have bread, and cakes, and pastries, and breakfast cereals, and macaroni, and spaghetti, and noodles in their soup.

Eating wheat products as liberally as any American is likely to, a person probably doesn't bread-and-cookie his way through more than 168 pounds of flour a year. Ac-

America's wheat farmers in 41 States take to the polls to decide what to do about marketing their too-abundant supply



A FARMER COMMITTEEMAN takes a sample of some wheat which is to go into the Ever-Normal Granary. The sample is examined to determine the variety and quality of the wheat. Farmers who plant wheat according to plan can borrow 52 to 75 percent of the parity price on wheat that goes into storage.

Supply statistics and price statistics are so much jumbled type to city families, but to farm families price and supply statistics read like the words of judgment out of the Doomsday Book.

Imagine, if you have a job somewhere, what would happen to your insides if your boss should walk over to you and say:

(1) Smith, I'm sorry, but I'll have to let you go, or

(2) Smith, I've got good news for you. Beginning on the first, your wages are doubled.

That's the way price and supply statistics speak to farm families. They may say to a family, you'll have to give up your home. Or, you can't buy those glasses Mary needs. Or, Jimmy can't go off to school. Or, short rations for your family this year.

A PRICE OF 40 CENTS A BUSHEL WOULD BE about the worst news a wheat farmer could hear. Yet 40 cents or less a bushel is what the United States farmers would have got for their wheat last year if the world market had been permitted to set the domestic price as it has in the past.

Instead, United States farmers who cooperated with the wheat program got an average of something like 83 cents a bushel for their wheat.

The 43 cents a bushel difference in price is about the difference between being employed and unemployed. The difference is due to a

wheat program, provided by Congress and operated by wheat farmers in cooperation with the Department of Agriculture. For a complete description of the program you might read the July 1939 and the March 1, 1940 issues of the CONSUMERS' GUIDE.

UNDER THIS PROGRAM, WHEAT FARMERS agree to plant each year the number of acres that will produce the amount of wheat we normally consume in this country plus the amount that can be exported plus an amount to carry over to next year to ensure safety in supplies. There is a national acreage allotment in which each wheat farmer shares.

Because nobody can absolutely guarantee the amount of wheat a certain number of acres will produce, extra provisions are made for an Ever Normal Granary (1) to protect farmers from the punishing effects of too much wheat in good years, and (2) to protect consumers from the punishing effect of too little wheat in poor years.

When these provisions fail to keep things in balance, there is an emergency switch called Marketing Quotas.

The Secretary of Agriculture, according to the provision describing the Marketing Quotas, must take an inventory of the Nation's prospective wheat supplies each year before May 15. If the wheat inventory reveals that the prospective total supply of wheat will exceed a normal year's domestic

consumption and exports by more than 35 percent he must then proclaim Wheat Marketing Quotas.

Once the Marketing Quotas are announced, all wheat farmers who are affected must be given a chance to go to the polls to vote for or against the quotas. There are about 1,500,000 wheat farmers in 41 States, but generally speaking only the commercial farms, estimated roughly at about half the total number, would be affected by quotas. If farmers vote for the quotas by a two-thirds majority, marketing quotas remain in effect. If they don't vote for quotas by a two-thirds majority, then the marketing quotas are canceled. The law provides that in this case the Federal Government shall stop making loans to farmers on their wheat, because the Government cannot afford to advance loans on a supply of wheat which is uncontrolled.

Marketing Quotas, when ratified by two-thirds of the farmers affected, permit a farmer to sell all the wheat he grows on his acreage allotment (his apportioned share of the National Acreage Allotment for wheat) for whatever price he can get. If he doesn't want to sell it, he can store it in sealed bins on his farm or in approved commercial warehouses, and can obtain a Government loan on it. This loan may range in amount from 52 to 75 percent of the parity price of wheat. Parity price is computed by a complicated formula, but actually it is simply a price per bushel of wheat which will buy the same quantity of goods and services a bushel of wheat bought in 1910-14.

When wheat Marketing Quotas are voted in, a farmer who wants to sell more than his share of wheat must pay a penalty for excess wheat he markets. Should a farmer decide to store his extra wheat in the sealed bins of the Ever Normal Granary and obtain a Federal loan on it, then he can only borrow 60 percent as much as his neighbor who did not grow more than his share.

As things look now, it's almost certain that wheat Marketing Quotas will be proclaimed by the Secretary of Agriculture before May 15.

Already May 31, has been tentatively set aside as wheat referendum day so America's wheat farmers can go to the polls and vote for or against the Marketing Quotas.

NINE O'CLOCK ON THE MORNING OF MAY 31, the polls are going to open in school houses, and churches, and county courthouses, and agriculture buildings in almost every farm community in all except 7 of the 48 States. Beginning early in the morning, farmers will start toward town. Some will

make a day of it, and the kids and the wife will pile into the family car with the man of the family. They'll go shopping or visiting maybe while he goes to the polling place, says hello to his neighbors who are the referendum officials, has his name checked off the list of eligible voters, and finally casts his secret ballot. His vote in, he'll probably hurry away with a wave of his hand and go downtown to catch up with his wife and children so he can enjoy shopping with them.

When he overtakes his wife she'll want to know what happened, and in explanation, he'll say, "Well, I voted."

"Yes?"

"There were 2 spaces for marking your ballot," he'll explain as they go along. "You put an X in one if you were in favor of the quotas or you put an X in the other if you were against."

"And how did you vote?" his wife will ask.

"You ought to know," the farmer will laugh, "we decided that together."

And that'll be that.

In the evening of May 31, farmers from all over the neighborhood will gather in the school auditorium and the ballot totals will be marked up on a blackboard before everyone as they are counted.

When the last vote is counted, the local officials will send the returns off to the county seat where more farmer officials will be compiling subtotals. The subtotals will be forwarded to State capitals, and then finally the votes will surge into Washington for the final tabulation.

WHATEVER WAY THE VOTE GOES, YOU CAN depend upon the democratic integrity of the balloting. When they read the returns, farmers can light their pipes and say that's their democratic decision—the 50-acre farmer as well as the 5,000-acre farmer. Each farmer, so long as he is affected by the quota, has one vote, and no farmer, no matter if he is a corporation with vast farm lands, has more than one vote.

Across the border, Canadian farmers, too, are struggling with too much wheat. Their government has decreed a marketing quota which permits Canadian farmers to sell only about half their wheat. Prices have been fixed at about 50 cents a bushel, as against the average of 83 cents American wheat farmers are getting by cooperating in the program, and any Canadian farmer who sells more than his quota is subject to fine and imprisonment.

Nobody's trying to make a case that the

way American wheat farmers are coping with their problems is the one and only way, but farmers, faced with actual surpluses which their own countrymen cannot eat and other countries cannot take, are persuaded that there's no other practical way out of their troubles than to get the help of Government in controlling supplies to sustain income.

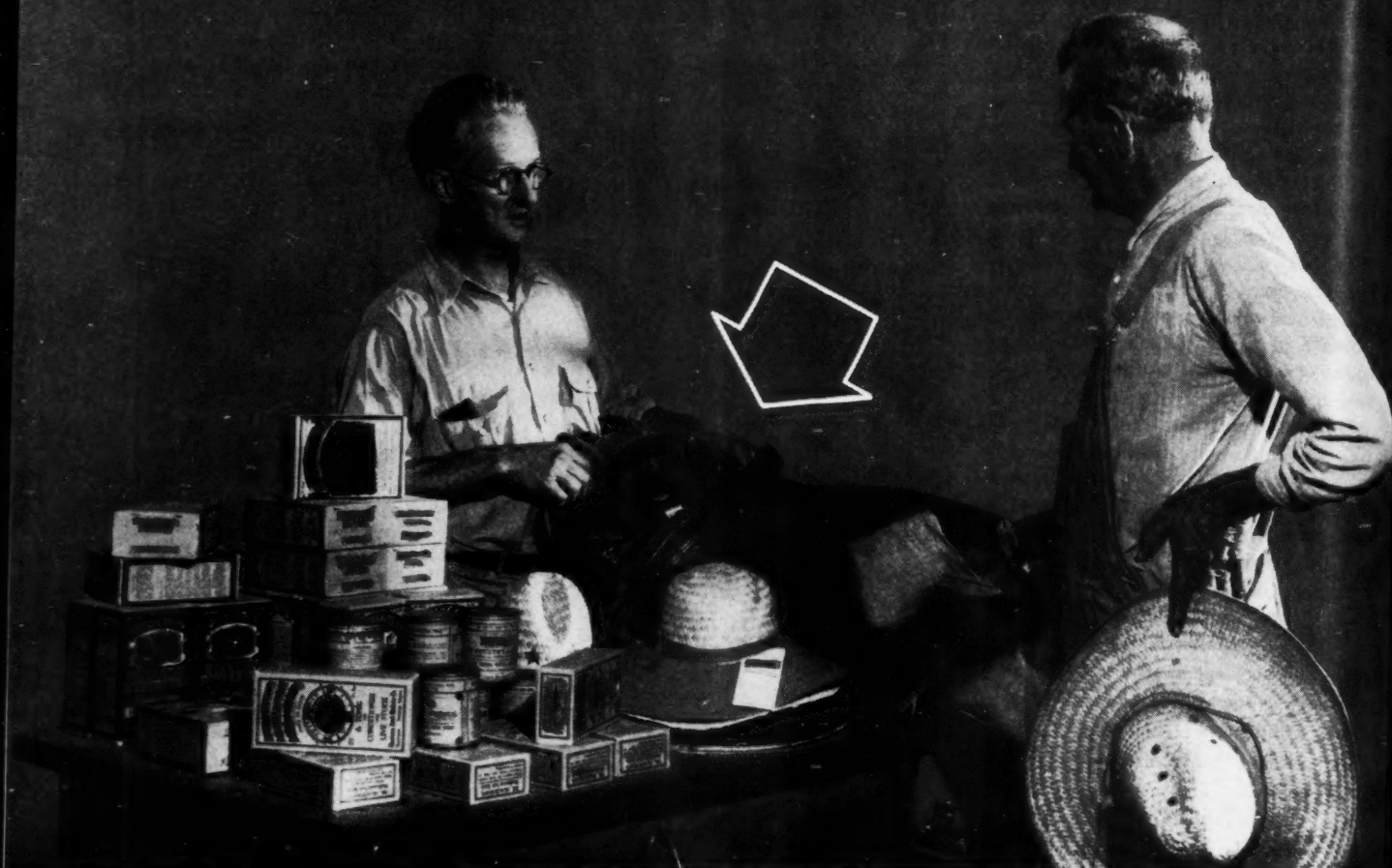
Other farmers, trying to make a living by producing the kinds of foods that consumers could use in greater amounts, have other problems. For them, shoving up prices by controlling supplies is not the whole answer. There's an even more difficult job for Government to do, and that is to help such farmers develop new and greater markets.



SURPLUSES of wheat give other countries, besides the United States, a headache. Our next door neighbor, Canada, too, has been producing more wheat than its farmers can sell at fair prices. Surpluses there are piled up high in open fields as above. In the United States farmers can store their surpluses in carefully sealed granaries as below and obtain Government loans on the wheat. Loans help them to hold the wheat until another year when there may be more need for this food.



Stretching Your Cotton Goods Budget



SUPPOSE SOMEONE came along and said: "Here are \$25. You can have all of them, provided you spend every cent on cotton goods for yourself, your family, or your household. Spend them any way you like, but buy only cotton goods that are made with American cotton and made in American mills."

What would you buy?

That's a question that hundreds of thousands of Southern cotton growing families are going to go into huddles over this year.

These are the farm families who are taking advantage of the Government's offer to give them \$25 worth of cotton stamps if they cooperate in a special cotton program. (See CONSUMERS' GUIDE for January 15, 1941.)

Any sensible family checks over its present cotton goods possessions before it decides on what to add to them. That's probably what you'd do, too. But if your cotton needs are like the needs of city relief families now receiving cotton stamps under the Surplus Marketing Administration's program (See

CONSUMERS' GUIDE for April 1, 1940), this would be how you would divide up your \$25:

For household goods.	\$9.25
For men's wear.	6.75
For ladies' wear.	4.25
For boys' wear.	2.50
For girls' wear.	1.25
For infants' wear.	1.00

\$25.00

OF COURSE, THIS IS NO RULE TO GO BY. IT is just the way families with very low incomes, operating under the Cotton Stamp program, have been spending their cotton stamps.

Because lots of families will be going to market this year with their extra \$25 worth of Cotton Stamps, we have pulled together here, from the expert research and observations of the Bureau of Home Economics, some rules anyone can go by in selecting some of the many different kinds of cotton goods most families need.

COTTON FABRICS:

Fiber: Judge the fiber by unravelling a yarn and pulling out the little fibers making up the yarn. Short fibers vary from a half to one inch in length. Compare the fibers of different cotton fabrics. Best fabrics have the longest fibers.

Construction: Yarns should be evenly, closely, and firmly spun. Coarse yarns interwoven with fine yarns—as in dimities and poplins—may cause the weaker yarns to give way unless of good quality. The same holds for irregular yarns producing lumps in the fabric. Look for knots where broken yarns may have been joined together. Unless made skillfully, these knots can result in tears and other damage. Judge the weave by holding the fabrics up to the light to see how close and even it is. Information on the label giving yarn count is the best index to quality of weave. The higher the yarn count, the more durable the fabric, other things being equal. Yarn count that is approximately equal in both directions means a

How to make every penny buy more when you market for household and personal cotton goods

fabric with the strength equally distributed. Pull the fabric between the fingers to see if the yarns shift easily. Scratch it with your fingernail; if the yarns give easily, it means the fabrics will fray at the seams when made into a garment. A knitted fabric, elastic and porous, easily pulls out of shape unless it is closely knitted.

Finish: Sometimes excessive sizing put in to make a fabric look better than it is can be exposed by rubbing a corner of the fabric between the fingers and noticing if a tell-tale powdery substance filters down. Improper bleaching results in weakened threads; pull the fabric each way to see if it gives easily.

Dye: Fabrics labelled "vat dye" or "indanthrene dye" are least likely to fade because the dye has become a part of the fiber. Better penetration and, often better fastness, of dyes is obtained by dyeing yarns before they are woven. Printed fabrics may be more susceptible to fading than yarn or piece-dyed fabrics.

SHEETS:

Label: Should tell yarn count, breaking strength, weight in ounces per square yard, amount of sizing, size of finished sheet, amount of shrinkage.

Fabric: Yarn count should be about equal

both ways; otherwise, weave is "unbalanced" and may not wear well. Weight of the sheet is the number of ounces per square yard. Low-weight sheets may be fine percales, or just sleazy and poor quality. If loosely woven, they wrinkle, do not wear well, are uncomfortable to sleep on. Heavy sheets are hard to handle, run up laundry bills. Mediumweight and heavyweight muslins are best for long wear and everyday use. On page 10 there is a table to guide you in selecting 5 different types of sheets.

Judge evenness and balance of fabric weave by holding it up to the light. If threads are uneven, sleazy or loose, sheet is poor quality. Fabric should be free from sizing or filling, should be torn rather than cut from the bolt, and should be hemmed with strong thread in short, even stitches—about 12 to 14 to the inch.

Quality: The higher the breaking strength of the fabric, the longer it will wear. "Seconds" have imperfections in the weave, may or may not wear well, should sell at lower price. "Run of the mill" sheets have not been classified into firsts or seconds, should also sell at lower prices.

Hems and selvages: Look for extra threads on selvage edges to increase wear. Hems should be turned evenly and closed at

ends. Hemstitching lowers wear, costs more; machine stitching rarely tears, but stitching itself and folded edge may wear badly.

Dimensions: Measure length, width, thickness of mattress for size. Add 5 to 7 inches for hems, 5 to 8 inches additional for shrinkage. **Best size to buy:** length, 99 to 108 inches; width, single or twin bed, 63 inches; twin or three-quarter, 72 inches; double, 81 to 90 inches.

SHIRTS:

Fabric: Broadcloth, oxford cloth, madras, chambray, and percale are fabrics most often used for business type shirts. Oxford, chambray, madras, and high quality broadcloth are durable. Heavyweight chambray is used for work shirts along with covert, khaki, and jean. Percales for medium priced shirts. Fabric should be firm, smooth, with minimum sizing, no loose threads, floats, or fuzzy surface. Novelty shirts with designs, stripes, or checks of rayons don't wash well. High quality shirtings are smooth, silky, firm, not thick, harsh, or rough.

Collar: Collar should be right height for neck of wearer, points should be sharp, stitched evenly and should lie flat. Several rows of stitching on inside of neckband keep collar firm.

Sleeves: Sleeves should be cut in one piece, but if pieced at the back of arm, they may still fit properly. Work shirts need a double fabric at elbow.

YARN count is one measure of the durability and strength of cotton goods. Consumers don't carry to market accurate precision instruments like this one to check yarn count for themselves. That's why the information should be on the label of all cotton goods if consumers are to buy wisely.

FIRST thing needy consumers buy under the Cotton Stamp Plan is piece goods. From these they make clothing, sheets, towels, and other cotton articles. To get quality in piece goods, consumers have to know facts about finish, yarn count, breaking strength, colorfastness, and shrinkage resistance.



Cuff: Sleeves should be pleated or gathered evenly to cuffs. Placket should be long enough for cuff to be ironed flat. Button halfway up placket keeps cuff neat and even.

Back: Back should be full cut, with pleats or gathers set over the shoulder blades, not in center of back, where they do little good. The shirt should be cut longer at center back.

Buttons: Buttons should be sewed on with strong thread shanks. Low quality buttons are cloudy, rough, uneven, chipped, with holes off center.

Seams: Seams in good quality shirts have 18 to 20 stitches to inch; work shirts, 12 to 16 stitches to inch.

Size: Size of collar and sleeve length should always be stamped on shirt. Tight shoulders, short sleeves, or tight neckband all mean poor fits. Size stamp sometimes looks like this: "15-4." This means a 15 neckband and a 34-inch sleeve.

Shrinkage: Buy shirts which have a shrinkage guarantee on the label.

OVERALLS:

Kinds: Denim, twill, covert, and drill. Denim is low cost, and is good for all around serviceability. The kind that weighs 9.10 ounces per square yard is good for farm work and work around the house. Heavier weights (2.00, 1.85, and 1.60) cost more, are heavier, but are stronger. Lighter weights don't last. Yarn count should be 61 in warp (lengthwise) per inch, 39 in filling (crosswise). Lengthwise breaking strength should be 145 pounds, crosswise, 58 pounds.

Twills are of harder finer yarns, are more resistant to friction and rubbing strain, and resist dust, oil, and grease.

Covert cloth, like twills, is a "dressier" material. Drill, worn by soldiers in warm weather, costs more than denim but wears well. The kind that weighs 7.7 ounces per square yard should have yarn count of 72 by 60, and breaking strength of 114 by 80.

Dyes: Indigo dyes are best for blue denim. Ask for colorfast guarantee against light, water, laundering.

Shrinkage: Look for labels guaranteeing

against shrinkage beyond a stated percentage, usually 1 or 2 percent. If garment is not so guaranteed, it should be over-sized to allow for slack.

Stitching: Should be double or triple stitched, with reinforcement at crotch, in the seat, at strap joinings, and at pockets. Seams should be lapped, with 10 or 12 stitches to inch. Look for "double hitch" construction where bib meets trousers.

Trimmings: Buckles, buttons, slides, and loops should be of brass or aluminum. Buttons should not be sewed, but riveted on with rustproof metal.

WOMEN'S DRESSES:

Fabric: Should have informative labels telling yarn count, colorfastness, and percentage of shrinkage to expect. Fabric should suit the purpose of dress; voile is all right for afternoon wear, but for housework a strong percale is better. Yarns should be smooth and closely woven, not fuzzy. Hold material to light to see if weave is close, and test for excessive sizing by rubbing a small part of fabric between fingers. If dress has special finish, ask for guarantee on permanency, and how it should be cared for.

Size: Dress sizes are not standardized. Always try dress on to be sure of correct fit. Good fitting dress should stay in place, shouldn't "ride," should allow ample movement for sitting, walking, driving, gardening, if dress is to be used for everyday wear.

Seams: Seams should not pull or stretch out of shape. The fewer the seams the better. Look for concealed seams, a sign the manufacturer has skimmed on material. Examine the whole seam, not just a part of it, to check on irregular or loose stitching. Good seams have about 15 stitches to the inch, and thread ends are not left dangling.

Cut: Cut of dress should be straight and even; threads of fabric should not slant as they create bagginess and poorly hanging material. Seam lines in shoulders, around armholes, and in the skirt will have ugly bulges if fabric has not been cut properly.

Hems: Hems on ready made dresses

should be ample enough to make any necessary adjustments. In wash dresses—except in those of very heavy material—first fold of the hem should be stitched by machine, then blindstitched to the dress.

Trimmings: Facings and bindings should fit perfectly to keep shape of dress. If edges are too tight or are stretched, material will hump or ripple. Plackets should be of good size, neatly fitted, flat and inconspicuous. Turn-back cuffs should be so made that they can be turned down and ironed neatly.

MEN'S UNDERWEAR

Two types: 1-piece ("union suits"), with long, medium-cut, or short sleeves and legs; and 2-piece "shirt and shorts" combination.

One-piece: Size: Sized according to chest measurements, ranging from 32 to 48 inches. Best to buy suit 2 inches larger than chest measurement to get sufficient length for comfort. Boys' sizes range from 3 to 12, or 2 to 18 years.

Material: Knitted goods or woven muslin. Former has short, elbow-length, or long sleeves, with knee-length, three-quarter, or ankle-length legs. Some prefer knitted fabrics because they stretch with movement. Woven material should allow plenty of room for movement, should not be tight, as they do not stretch.

Seams: Flat seams which are smooth and nonraveling, or ridged seams, so long as they are soft and elastic, are serviceable if stitched firmly and closely. Neckbands and bindings on ankles and arms should be knitted to lie flat without ripples. Ribbed cuffs are resilient and close fitting but should not stretch and lose shape after laundering.

Buttons: On knitted fabrics look for cloth stay sewed on underneath button to hold it.

Two-piece: Shirts: Size: Sold by chest measurement. Should be long enough to tuck in shorts.

Material: Woven or knit. Woven likely to be cooler and more durable; knit more comfortable and elastic. Look for guarantees against shrinkage.

Shorts: Size: Check measurements. Here is table for minimum measurements in inches for most common sizes drawn up by Pennsylvania Experiment Station:

LOOK FOR SHEETS WITH THESE MEASUREMENTS

	Yarn Count in Warp	Yarn Count in Filling	Weight Per Sq. Yd.	Breaking Strength* in Warp	Breaking Strength* in Filling
Muslins:					
Lightweight	below 60	below 60	less than 4 oz.	over 50 lbs.	over 45 lbs.
Mediumweight	70-75	60-65	4-4½ oz.	over 60 lbs.	over 50 lbs.
Heavyweight	74-80	66-70	4.6 oz.	over 70 lbs.	over 70 lbs.
Fine counts	over 80	over 80	3.7-4 oz.	over 60 lbs.	over 60 lbs.
Percales	over 100	over 98	3.6-4 oz.	over 60 lbs.	over 60 lbs.

* By grab method.

Size	Total Length	Leg Width	Width Across Seat
32	16½	12½	23
34	17	13	24
36	17	13½	25
38	17½	14	26
40	17½	14½	27

[Concluded on page 15]

Citrus Saga



PART III

*It's smart to be well posted on orange values before you go to market. Here are some pointers to help you get that way**

WHAT A citrus fruit consumer thinks he wants isn't always what he would want if he knew better.

Many people in the market for oranges, for example, want their oranges to be orange colored, as if the color of an orange were a sure guide to good quality. This isn't so. All mature oranges aren't orange colored. But to pander to this mistaken prejudice of consumers, growers and dealers handling oranges that are not naturally orange colored often process them to give them that color.

Oranges and grapefruit are subjected to treatment with a gas, mature citrus fruit naturally give off, called ethylene. This hastens the disappearance of green chlorophyll to reveal the yellow or orange carotene coloring in the skin. Not all oranges are gassed but practically all those that come from Florida and Texas in September, October, and November are. Some California Valencia and some California navel oranges are also gassed. After being subjected to ethylene gas the fruit is degreened in most cases and the consumer's sense of propriety remains unviolated. Oranges that have been subjected to this gas are not considered to have been artificially colored and consequently Federal laws do not require them to be specially labeled.

Certain early Florida and Texas oranges which appear on the markets in October and November don't turn the right color even when they are treated with ethylene.

Since Florida and Texas growers must sell their oranges to consumers who have set notions about color, some Florida and Texas oranges are dyed. Under Federal law the dyes must be tested and certified to be harmless by the Food and Drug Administration before use. These oranges must be labeled. Usually each orange is stamped "color added." The dye is harmless but occasionally in applying it the citrus fruit may be overheated. For this reason "color added" fruit may sometimes have an off-flavor, or may be more susceptible to decay because of skin injuries. That's color.

PEOPLE ALSO BUY CITRUS FRUIT FOR TASTE and flavor. These factors depend on combinations of sugars, acids, glucosides, esters, and peel oil in the citrus fruit. The combination of the sugars and acids gives a range of tastes from sour through tart, and from sweet down to insipid. The glucosides, bitter tasting compounds which break down into sugar among other things, are present to the ordinary consumer's taste in limes and grapefruit. Esters are aromatic chemicals containing the

fragrances used in most perfumes.

The tang in Mandarin oranges and the faint pineapple smell in Pineapple oranges are indications of the presence of an ester. Finally the peel oil has its own flavor and aroma which help give citrus fruit their characteristic tastes.

The amount of acid and sugar in citrus fruit depends largely upon their maturity. State laws in Florida, California, Arizona, and Texas now require that all citrus fruit shipped out of these States must come up to definite standards of maturity. Whether or not a fruit is mature is determined by the percent of solids present in the juice of the fruit and the relation of the amount of acid to these total solids (the solids are mostly sugar). Color, too, is used to determine maturity in California and Arizona.

The Federal Food and Drug Administration also patrols the citrus fruit industry to see to it that only mature fruit is sold in interstate commerce. In the past, after freezes or frosts, the Federal Food and Drug Administration has seized some citrus fruit. At the present time there are no official compulsory Federal standards for citrus fruit, but it is

*Earlier articles on citrus fruit appeared in the January 15, and February 1, 1941, issues of CONSUMERS' GUIDE.

likely that such standards will be established in the near future under the authority of the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act of 1938. Unofficial standards which were used as guide before the passage of the new Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act required grapefruit to contain 7 parts of soluble solids (which is roughly sugar) to each part of acid. Oranges had to contain 8 parts of soluble solids to 1 part of acid.

When you buy oranges, whether for juice or just for eating, it's a good idea to buy them by the pound. That way you know how much citrus fruit you're getting for your money. Then you ought to remember in comparing prices that oranges and grapefruit vary in price depending on their size. When you compare prices of these fruits be sure you compare the same sizes.

ORANGE SIZES ARE MEASURED BY THE NUMBER of them that fit into an orange crate. Large oranges range from the biggest size, No. 80 (that is, 80 oranges to the crate) down to No. 126 (that is, 126 oranges to the crate). Medium sized oranges run from 150 to 216 to a crate. Small oranges begin at 250 to the crate and run all the way down to the kind that are almost the size of golf balls which come 392 to the crate.

Grapefruit range in size usually from 28 to 126 to the crate. When grapefruit prices are high, grapefruit small enough to come 150 to the crate are shipped to market.

There are Government grades for citrus fruit.

One set of Government grades provides standards for oranges, grapefruit, and tangerines that come from everywhere except California and Arizona. Another set of Government grades offers measuring rods for California and Arizona oranges. Then there are also grades for lemons and limes. These grades are used by dealers and are not easily usable by consumers.

Citrus fruit grades that are of use to consumers are the grades defined by the Agricultural Marketing Service for canned grapefruit juice, canned grapefruit, and canned orange juice.

Like the A, B, C grades for other canned fruits and vegetables, the use of grades for canned grapefruit juice, canned grapefruit, and canned orange juice is voluntary. No canner is required to use these standards in grading or labeling his product.

Only two grades are defined for canned grapefruit juice: Grade A, and Grade C. In general, Grade A canned grapefruit juice is the best quality one can buy. The grade specification requires a natural light color, a juice that is practically free from defects,

that contains only a small amount of pulp, and may be sweetened or unsweetened. The amount of acid must fall between certain definite limits, the flavor must be excellent, and not more than 0.014 percent of recoverable peel oil may be present in the juice.

Grade C grapefruit juice may be darker in color, may contain more pulp, may contain slightly more oil than Grade A, and may not be so delicately flavored. Grade C grapefruit juice like all Grade C canned foods, is wholesome, nourishing, and well-flavored, and may be sweetened or unsweetened.

There are three grades for canned grapefruit, A, B, and "Broken." Grade A canned grapefruit is carefully selected for size, color, texture, and flavor. Grade B is a choice product, which may lack the uniform excellence of Grade A. Broken grade canned grapefruit may be of very good quality but is packed from broken grapefruit segments.

Canned orange juice under the Federal grades is the unfermented juice of properly matured fresh fruit. It may or may not have added sugar. It must be pasteurized sufficiently to prevent spoilage in a sealed container.

There are two regular grades, A and C. The citrus acid requirement for Grade C is more liberal than for Grade A, permitting the Grade C juice to be packed from fruit slightly less ripe than is used for Grade A. Color, freedom from defects, and flavor also help determine the grade of canned orange juice. As in the case of other U. S. Grades for canned foods, Grade A orange juice is of excellent quality and Grade C juice, while lacking in excellence, is, nevertheless, palatable and wholesome.

Canned grapefruit juice, grapefruit, and canned orange juice are not legally required to be graded. Therefore, if consumers want these very useful grade statements on the canned citrus they buy, they must ask for them at their grocery stores.

CANNED CITRUS PRODUCTS, THE EXPERTS say, are packed to hold their flavor and vitamin potency for at least a year. During this period, citrus fruits in cans have an average of 80 to 90 percent of the vitamin potency of the fresh fruit. In using the canned citrus fruit juices experts suggest that just before you drink the canned juice you pour it back and forth between 2 glasses for a minute or so. You'll notice the taste improvement.

Citrus fruit is most economically purchased by the crate. You shouldn't buy large quantities of citrus fruit if the fruit is going to spoil before you can get around to using it, but what you can do in that case is to pool

with your mother, or your sister-in-law, or your neighbor. Then you can buy as much fruit as you can use economically at quantity prices.

Another economical way to buy oranges is to buy from truckers who haul ungraded, run-of-the-orchard fruit to most markets now. They can usually be had more cheaply than the kind sold in regular stores. Very often they are sold in half-crate mesh bags.

When you buy oranges in large quantities, it's a good idea to check the inward appearance of the fruit by a little probing with a penknife. Cut a sample orange in half and see for yourself if it's juicy enough for your taste.

WHAT YOU SEE WHEN YOU GO TO THE MARKET looking for oranges depends on the time of the year you go. From November to May you'll see the rich-colored, thick-skinned Washington navel orange from California. It's a seedless orange with an indentation at one end, the navel, really an embryonic orange, an orange that never grew up. The Washington navel is most frequently bought for eating out of hand, and you'll note while eating it, that the orange segments come apart easily.

From May through November the thinner-skinned, softer, juicier California Valencia oranges come to market. They contain from 1 to 7 or 8 seeds.

Florida and Texas Valencias, which are the same variety as the California fruit but grown under different conditions, will be found in the market from March through May.

Parson Browns and a few other early varieties are Florida's contribution to the orange counters from early October to the middle of November. Usually they contain an abundance of juice and from 10 to 19 seeds.

The reddish Pineapple orange with its faint pineapple fragrance carries the ball for Florida from January through the middle of March. They are rather seedy, with from 15 to 23 seeds, but they are rich in sweet juice.

Tangerines come to town for the winter holidays, arriving in November and hanging around until March.

Besides these varieties, oranges called seedling oranges arrive all during the Florida season. They are oranges harvested from trees that have been raised from seeds. These oranges are apt to be very seedy inside, but they usually have good juice content and flavor.

When buying oranges steer clear of puffy fruit, creased fruit, excessively light fruit (light in weight), fruit that looks water-

soaked, moldy fruit, or fruit that is wilted, shriveled, or flabby.

Don't be alarmed by slight scars, scratches, or discoloration. Rusty discolorations or greenness ordinarily do not affect the quality of the fruit.

BEST BUYS IN ORANGES WILL BE FIRM, heavy, and will have fine-textured skins. The loose skins on tangerines make them feel puffy. To get good quality watch for heaviness and brick red coloring.

Juiciest grapefruit are thin-skinned and heavy. Coarse-skinned, puffy, or spongy grapefruit are all right but they will contain less juice. You can ignore slight scars, thorn scratches, discolorations, scales, and even large rusty patches on the fruit. They don't affect the taste or the juice content.

Deep yellow-colored lemons appeal to your eye, but if it's acid quality you want, select the lighter-colored varieties or the greenish yellow kind. The deeply colored lemons are likely to have more juice, but less acidity.

Look for fine-textured skins in lemons, and heaviness. Coarse-skinned lightweight lemons are less desirable.

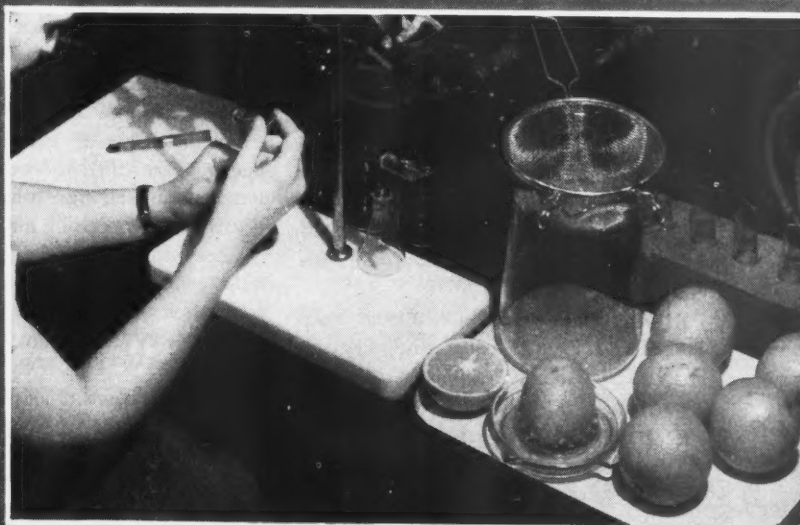
About the same principles apply to limes. The greener limes are more acid than the yellow ones, the heavier ones are juicier than the light ones, and light, shriveled, hard-skinned, or soft limes are likely to be worthless.

Limes and lemons, incidentally, keep better in the home if you store them submerged in a jar of water. They are less likely to dry out or rot that way.

1. A CITRUS FRUIT is as mature as its juice. The most important maturity test depends on the amounts of sugar and acid contained in the fruit. All citrus fruit that enters interstate commerce must pass maturity tests.

2. CITRUS FRUITS are 4-star sources of ascorbic acid (Vitamin C). Canned citrus—canned orange juice, grapefruit, grapefruit juice—under present canning methods have from 80 to 90 percent of the vitamin potency of the fresh fruit.

3. CONSUMERS' citrus fruit dollars have greater potency when citrus fruit are bought in quantities—by the crate or half crate. If you can't use that much fruit yourself, it's a good idea to pool with your neighbors. Run-of-the-orchard fruit that's sold at farmers' markets off trucks is also a bargain usually.



Milk Glossary for Consumers

PART IX

*More everyday words used by people who think about and work on consumers' milk problems**

PENNY MILK. (See Surplus Marketing Administration.)

PHOSPHORUS. (See Minerals.)

POINT. The quoted price farmers usually receive for milk is related to the butterfat content of the milk. The price a farmer actually receives varies with every tenth of 1 percent, more or less, of the butterfat milk contains above or below a fixed standard. The tenths of 1 percent are known as points.

PRICE. (See Store Price, Resale Price, Base Surplus Plan, Classified Price, Elasticity of Demand, Administered Price.)

PRODUCER. Dairy farmers tend an average of 12 milk cows on some 605,000 full-time dairy farms throughout the country. Milk production goes on to a lesser degree on 4,000,000 other farms in the Nation.

Dairy farmers like milk consumers aren't all of one kind. Beginning with the kind you're most likely to meet up with, there is the farmer whose dairying is part-time. He may produce milk just for his family, or he may sell his milk during the flush seasons, or he may sell milk all the year round.

Then there is the fluid milk producer, the dairy farmer who lives in the milk shed around a city and whose milk finds its way into bottles and containers. Most of the time he sells his milk to a milk distributor. Sometimes he sells the milk he produces directly to consumers, then he is called a producer-distributor.

There are dairy farmers, notably in the Mid-west, who don't live within a milk shed, who produce the milk that goes to consumers as butter. Some such farmers separate their milk on the farm, skimming off the cream for sale to creameries, retaining the skim milk to feed to their stock.

Another class of milk producers, most numerous in the Mid-west, includes the farmers who sell their whole milk to condenseries for processing into canned milk.

Cheese factories are the destination for the milk another group of farmers produce. Very often the cheese factory is owned co-operatively by all the farmers who ship their milk to it.

Specific problems of all these farmers vary greatly. The price they get for their milk varies greatly. All dairy farmers in 1939 received an average of 3.44 cents a quart for the milk they sold. Whether a particular farmer got more or less than this depended on his location, and what he sold his milk for.

PRODUCTION. The milk cow population that was giving milk in 1939 was 23,923,000. These cows produced 109 billion pounds of milk (about 13 billion gallons) in that year. The average cow contribution to the national milk bottle was 528 gallons.



Production of milk is the most important activity on the Nation's farms (measured by value of product). In 1939 the cash farm value of the milk products produced and sold by farmers amounted to \$1,355,067,000 (16 percent of the cash income for all farmers). If the value of the milk products used on the farm by farmers were added to this, the money value of America's milk production during 1939 would soar over 1,700 million dollars (17 percent of the total farm income in 1939).

PROTEIN. Proteins are the stuff the body tissues, muscles, and fluids are made of. All proteins contain nitrogen, their basic component. Chemically, however, proteins are made up of what are called amino acids. These amino acids, of which 22 are known, combine together to form the various kinds of proteins just as the letters in the alphabet combine to form words. Some proteins, which are known as incomplete proteins, do not contain all the amino acids the human body needs to fill its requirements. Other proteins, known as complete proteins, do contain all the amino acids the human body needs. If these acids are present in good proportion for body needs, the protein is called an "efficient" protein.



*Earlier installments appeared in the August, October 1, October 15, November 1, December 2, December 16, 1940, January 15, February 1, 1941, issues of CONSUMERS' GUIDE.

Whole milk has an average protein content of about 4 efficient proteins. The most important of these are casein and lactalbumin.

Butter contains only a slight amount of proteins, and cheese somewhat more. Skim milk, however, and skim milk products are rich in milk proteins and are the very cheapest sources of these most valuable nutrients.

PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE. An agency in the Federal Security Agency whose activities are directed toward the prevention of disease and the protection of health.

It administers the quarantines which are intended to prevent the spread of diseases in the United States from abroad; it conducts research in health and disease problems, and it cooperates with the States and cities in establishing and maintaining adequate public health services.

In recognition of the dangers to health which might arise from inadequately prepared and enforced milk laws, the Public Health Service has drawn up a recommended milk ordinance (Standard Milk Ordinance) which can be adopted in any city if the city wants it. The ordinance, which has been revised from time to time, was drafted with the aid of public health authorities, the Department of Agriculture, and the milk industry. It is designed to assure cities safe milk.

The Standard Milk Ordinance is in effect in over 2,300 communities.

No milk ordinance in itself insures safe milk, however adequate its provisions, unless it is enforced. The Public Health Service has developed a rating system which is used by many States for measuring the degree of compliance of community milk suppliers with the Grade A specifications of the Standard Milk Ordinance. Cities where enforcement is excellent enough to rate 90 percent under this rating system are named in a list which is published semiannually. Copies of this list may be obtained by writing to the United States Public Health Service, Washington, D. C.

Many cities have adopted milk ordinances of their own which differ from the Standard Milk Ordinance in one or more particulars. While their purpose, like the purpose of the Standard Milk Ordinance, is to protect people's health, they sometimes have the effect of being unduly costly, or they may act as barriers to the movement of milk products to market. (See Shed.)

COTTON GOODS

[Concluded from page 10]

Material: Plain weave costs less than novelty or fancy weave, and is just as durable. Weave should be close, smooth, flat, with no lumpy raised yarns. Test for filling. Look for shrinkage guarantee, and, if colored fabric, a colorfast guarantee.

Construction: Two types of design, seamless (or panel back), and the center-seam back. Latter is smaller around thighs, shorter in leg length. Panel back usually more comfortable because no center seams. Waist lines should be adjustable or have elastic in band. Seams should be flat, smooth, double-stitched with small lock stitch.

CURTAINS:

Cotton fabrics for curtains, like other cotton fabrics, should be firmly woven, should hang straight, and should be free of knots or other blemishes in the weave. Ask whether the material is washable, or has to be sent to the dry cleaner for cleaning. Look also for colorfast guarantees and for statements about shrinkage. Both are often printed on the selvage of many lower priced drapery materials.

Dyes and finish: Because they are continually exposed to the light, curtains of cotton materials should first of all be able to resist fading. That means a label guarantee. Vat dyes are the most fast to light and washing. There should be very little, if any, sizing in the fabric.

Design: Buy curtains of correct proportion and design. For small windows, simple, small-patterned curtains are best. For larger windows and spacious rooms, a large pattern, with bright colors and rich design is more in order. Be sure to harmonize the curtains with rugs, upholstery or slip covers in the room.

BEDSPREADS:

Check size, edge finish, seams, and fabrics on bedspreads.

Fabric: Fabric must be firm, evenly woven of smooth regular yarns. Fancy designs may mean yarns of different dimensions, or novelty or lumpy yarns in the fabric. These may wear through fine yarns and break in a relatively short time. Check firmness of weave by pulling material and seeing if each yarn stays in place. Designs created by "floating" one yarn over another invite trouble if the floaters catch and tear. These "floats," however, are necessary in some types of design. If you choose them anyway, be prepared for trouble.

Construction: Ends of spread should be

examined to make sure they are cut straight, and that the yarns running crosswise are parallel to edge of cover. Otherwise, the first laundering will result in a lopsided spread.

Seams: The fewer the seams the better. They pull out easily and are difficult to mend. Seams should be wide enough to hold well and stitches should be strong and closely spaced; 14 stitches to the inch is a good average.

Size: Size for double beds varies from 80 by 90 to 90 by 108 inches. If you want to have spread cover pillows, with enough left over for a generous tuck-in, choose the larger size.

Dyes: Look for colorfast guarantee both as to light and washing. What was said about dyes under "Cotton Fabrics" holds true for bedspreads.

BATH TOWELS:

Labels on towels rarely, if ever, give facts that will aid in wise purchasing. Sometimes a salesman can give you helpful information.

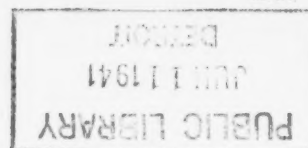
Fabric: Examine foundation cloth carefully. In good towels it should be closely woven, firm, and well covered with pile loops. Pile should be soft and fluffy. Cheap towels have low yarn count, loosely woven foundation fabric, and low weight. The loops are often few and far between.

Pile: Pile loops determine drying quality of towel. Must be soft, reasonably close together, sufficiently long, and not too tightly twisted. The more pile yarns there are to the inch, the more loops. Loops about one-eighth of an inch long are best. Longer loops are liable to catch and pull out. Fancy weaves cut down the number of pile loops and reduce the drying capacity of the towel.

Edge finish: The best towels have selvages. A hem or a lock stitch of the cut edge is usually an indication of lower quality. Hems often draw, the stitching breaks, and the raw edges soon ravel. Lock stitching is not always durable. It may break and let the raw edges fray badly.

Hems: All raw edges should be turned under at least a quarter of an inch, more if hem is in the terry fabric instead of in plain material. Hold hem up to light to determine how much it has been turned under. Hems should be backstitched at corners.

Size: Measure size of towel according to the amount of terry, not the end-to-end measurement of the towel itself. Large towels cost more, may be expensive to launder. Choose small towels for children. Remember that bath towels may shrink as much as 14 percent in first 5 washings. This would make a difference of 5 inches in the length of a 36-inch towel.



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